

On: 30 September 2014, At: 01:34

Publisher: Routledge

Informa Ltd Registered in England and Wales Registered Number: 1072954 Registered office: Mortimer House, 37-41 Mortimer Street, London W1T 3JH, UK



Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research

Publication details, including instructions for authors and subscription information:

<http://www.tandfonline.com/loi/rana20>

Predictors of travel motivations: the case of domestic tourists to island destinations in northwest of Malaysia

Azilah Kasim ^a , Hisham Dzakiria ^a , Chansoo Park ^b , Nor Azila Mohd Nor ^c , Mohamad Fawzi Mokhtar ^a & Jasmine Raziah Radzi Radha Rashid Radha ^a

^a School of Tourism, Hospitality and Environmental Management, Universiti Utara Malaysia , Sintok, Kedah , 06010 , Malaysia

^b Sauder School of Business, The University of British Columbia , 2053 Main Mall, Vancouver , BC , Canada , V6T 1Z2

^c School of Business Marketing, Universiti Utara Malaysia , Sintok , 06010 , Malaysia

Published online: 14 Feb 2013.

To cite this article: Azilah Kasim , Hisham Dzakiria , Chansoo Park , Nor Azila Mohd Nor , Mohamad Fawzi Mokhtar & Jasmine Raziah Radzi Radha Rashid Radha (2013) Predictors of travel motivations: the case of domestic tourists to island destinations in northwest of Malaysia, Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research, 24:2, 188-205, DOI: [10.1080/13032917.2012.751865](https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2012.751865)

To link to this article: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2012.751865>

PLEASE SCROLL DOWN FOR ARTICLE

Taylor & Francis makes every effort to ensure the accuracy of all the information (the "Content") contained in the publications on our platform. However, Taylor & Francis, our agents, and our licensors make no representations or warranties whatsoever as to the accuracy, completeness, or suitability for any purpose of the Content. Any opinions and views expressed in this publication are the opinions and views of the authors, and are not the views of or endorsed by Taylor & Francis. The accuracy of the Content should not be relied upon and should be independently verified with primary sources of information. Taylor and Francis shall not be liable for any losses, actions, claims, proceedings, demands, costs, expenses, damages, and other liabilities whatsoever or howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with, in relation to or arising out of the use of the Content.

This article may be used for research, teaching, and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproduction, redistribution, reselling, loan, sub-licensing, systematic supply, or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden. Terms & Conditions of access and use can be found at <http://www.tandfonline.com/page/terms-and-conditions>

Predictors of travel motivations: the case of domestic tourists to island destinations in northwest of Malaysia

Azilah Kasim^{a*}, Hisham Dzakiria^a, Chansoo Park^b, Nor Azila Mohd Nor^c,
Mohamad Fawzi Mokhtar^a and Jasmine Raziah Radzi Radha Rashid Radha^a

^a*School of Tourism, Hospitality and Environmental Management, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok, Kedah 06010, Malaysia;* ^b*Sauder School of Business, The University of British Columbia, 2053 Main Mall, Vancouver, BC, Canada V6T 1Z2;* ^c*School of Business Marketing, Universiti Utara Malaysia, Sintok 06010, Malaysia*

(Received 10 August 2012; final version received 19 November 2012)

This paper examines the role of key socio-demographic attributes and trip characteristics in travel motivations of domestic tourists to island destinations. A total of 1780 useful survey responses were collected over a period of 6 months via an assisted survey. Analysis using independent sample *t*-test and one-way ANOVA revealed that only the “travel companionship status” in respondents’ trip characteristics significantly influences the travel motivations of domestic tourists. Particularly, family and friends were found to be a major influence on the travel motivations of domestic tourists. The study concludes that the travel motivations of domestic tourists are more influenced by who individuals choose to travel with, therefore reflecting the issue of local conditions. The findings support Gilbert’s (1991, *Progress in tourism, recreation and hospitality management*. London: Belhaven) theory of family influence in travel decisions. However, it adds that where the population is relatively young, friends can also be a major influence. Theoretical and managerial implications are then discussed.

Keywords: domestic tourists; tourist motivations; family influence; travel decisions

Introduction

This paper focuses on understanding three aspects of domestic tourism in island destinations: the motivations of domestic tourists to island destination, the influence of socio-demography as predictors of travel motivation of domestic tourists, and how to effectively reach domestic tourists. The intention is to contribute to the literature by offering empirical findings on differences in chosen travel destinations of groups (Kozak, 2002). It also adds to the scant research on tourism motivation within the context of domestic tourism in developing countries (Bogari, Crowther, & Marr, 2003). The findings can offer managerial insights into marketing for domestic tourists within the study context.

The study focused on domestic tourism, given that domestic tourism is often an ignored component of the tourism industry. This is owing to the perception that domestic tourism is less glamorous than international tourism, and it brings a lesser level of economic and developmental value to a country (Richter, 1989). Consequently, domestic tourism has often been downplayed, and even ignored, in favour of potential international arrivals (Richter, 1989). As the world faces inevitable economic recession spurred by the

*Corresponding author. Email: azilah@uum.edu.my

US's economic meltdown in 2010, and more recently in some European countries, international tourism may no longer consistently fulfil its economic and developmental functions in the Third World economies. Despite the World Tourism Organization's positive projections on international tourist arrival, past experiences have demonstrated how sensitive international travel can be to disruptions such as economic hardship, political instability, and disease outbreak. Countries that depend on international tourism to support their economies are therefore vulnerable to reduced international visitation, when such issues present themselves. In order to continue benefiting from tourism, these countries need to consider the alternative, which in essence is domestic tourism (Scheyvens, 2002).

According to Boniface and Cooper (1994), domestic tourism constitutes ~80% of world tourism. A study by Ghimire (2001) suggests that domestic tourism exceeds international tourism 10 times over. Using Goa, India, as an example, Wilson (1997) observes that, even in internationally acclaimed beach tourism enclaves, there is often a large proportion of domestic tourists. Islands in the northeast region of Malaysia have also a significant portion of domestic tourist arrival. For example, Langkawi registered 535,076 domestic arrivals compared to 57,280 international arrivals in 2011 (Langkawi Development Authority [LADA], 2012). This shows how dependent Langkawi tourism is on domestic tourists.

At the state level, Malaysia has long recognized the benefit of domestic tourism. As such, Malaysia's policies and planning frameworks are geared towards enhancing the tourism sector. A study in 2010 highlighted *balik kampung*, or going back to one's home village and staying with friends and relatives, as a major travel motivation among domestic tourists (see Department of Statistics, 2010). However, an earlier study by Mohamed and Yusof (2005) proposed that only a small number of Malaysians considered *balik kampung* when making decisions about their travel. Therefore, this study will also seek to determine which of the two conclusions is more accurate.

In 2008, the Cuti-Cuti Malaysia Fair was launched to encourage domestic tourism, with the objective of attracting 38 million local tourists (*The New Strait Times*, 2008, March 8). Many advertisements were launched via electronic media for the campaign; however, from observation, it is evident that those advertisements were designed without any specific target market in mind, a method known as the shotgun approach. Shotgun approach has long been known as an ineffective marketing mechanism. Target marketing, developed with knowledge of the specific travel characteristics, needs, and motivations of the domestic market, will benefit service providers in the planning and execution of more effective marketing. Understanding travel motivation and the predictors of travel motivation, as this study set out to do, can provide useful marketing insights to help destination marketers target their market more effectively. The discussion can also add to the fairly limited discourse of domestic tourists' travel motivations in the literature.

Literature review

Many written works associated with tourism draw on "motivations" as a major determinant of consumer behaviour (Gilbert, 1991). Travel may be seen as an outlet by which humans satisfy needs and wants, yet it is only when a need is recognized that it becomes a want. When a person tries to satisfy a want, it becomes a motivated action. An understanding of motivation is therefore fundamental to this research, as it heavily influences patterns of tourism demand.

A wide range of factors motivate consumers to make tourism purchases. Motivating factors in tourism can be split into two groups: those which motivate a person to take a holiday, and those which motivate a person to take a particular holiday, destined to a specific location, at a particular time (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). There are many potential motivators that could relate to either or both of these factors, and there are a number of potential “variations on a theme” for each individual motivator, in addition to a myriad of ways in which they can be combined. No widely recognized method exists in categorizing the main motivating factors in tourism. For example, some of the major methods include cultural, pleasure, status, physical, personal development, personal, and emotional motivators (see Kozak, 2002). However, motivations have also been categorized as cultural value, utilitarian, knowledge, social, economical, family togetherness, interest, relaxation, and convenience of facilities (see Bogari et al., 2003).

As motivators are an important element of the purchasing process, understanding those motivations can help facilitate market segmentation and promotion (Heung, Qu, & Chu 2001). In tourism literature, numerous motivation theories or concepts have been proposed to explain tourist behaviour (Hung & Petrick, 2011), such as MacCannell’s seeking of “authenticity” (1999), Plog’s allocentric and psychocentric tourist continuum (1974), and Pearce and Caltabiano’s (1983) adaptation of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. An understanding of motivation helps in understanding tourist behaviour, in addition to answering the questions of why people travel (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilber, & Wanhill 2008) and what initiates a tourist’s travel purchasing behaviour. The classic dictionary definition of motivation is derived from the word “motivate”, which is to cause a person to act in a certain way or to stimulate interest. Many texts associated with tourism use the concept of motivation as a major influence upon consumer behaviour, taking general theories such as Maslow’s (1943) and applying them to tourists’ consumer behaviour.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is probably the best-known theory of motivation due to its simplicity (Cooper et al., 2008). Maslow argued that, if none of the higher needs in the hierarchy were satisfied, then the lowest physiological need would dominate behaviour. If the higher needs were satisfied, then, they would no longer motivate behaviour and the individual would be motivated by the next level need(s) in the hierarchy. The hierarchy of needs is as follows:

1. Physiological: hunger, thirst, rest, and activity.
2. Safety: security, freedom from fear, and anxiety.
3. Belonging and love: affection, giving, and receiving love.
4. Esteem: self-esteem and esteem for others.
5. Self-actualization: personal self-fulfilment.

Maslow identified two motivational types, which can be greatly simplified as (a) deficiency or tension-reducing motives and (b) inductive or arousal-seeking motives. Tourism researchers have borrowed extensively from Maslow, as he has provided a convenient set of indicators that can be relatively easy to label. Within Maslow’s model, human activity is wired into predetermined, understandable, and predictable aspects of action. The study of motivation in tourism has been derived from a range of disciplinary areas, which has led to a diverse approach in tourism (Cooper et al., 2008). This diversity is reflected in the approaches of various authors’ discussions of how motivation influences tourists’ consumer behaviour. The key approaches have been provided by Dann (1981), Plog (1994), and McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie (1995).

Dann (1981) has argued that there are seven elements within the overall approach to motivation: (1) travel as a response to something that is lacking yet desired – this approach

suggests that tourists are motivated by the desire to experience phenomena that are different from those available in their home environment. (2) Destination pull in response to motivational push – this distinguishes between motivation of the individual tourist in terms of the level of desire (push) and the pull of the destination attraction. (3) Motivation as fantasy – this is a subset of the first two factors and suggests that tourists travel in order to undertake behaviour that may not be culturally sanctioned in their home setting. (4) Motivation as classified purpose – a broad category which invokes the main purposes of a trip as motivators for travel. Purposes may include visiting friends and relatives, enjoying leisure activities, or studying. (5) Motivational typologies – this approach is internally divided into behavioural typologies, and typologies that focus on dimensions of the tourist role. (6) Motivation and tourist experience – this approach is characterized by the debate regarding the authenticity of tourist experiences and depends upon beliefs about types of tourist experiences. (7) Motivation as auto-definition and meaning – this suggests that the way in which tourists define their situations will provide a greater understanding of tourist motivation than simply observing their behaviour.

Further research by McIntosh et al. (1995) has outlined four categories of motivation: (1) physical motivators are those that relate to refreshment of body and mind, health purposes, sport, and pleasure. (2) Cultural motivators are those that are identified by the desire to see and know more about other cultures, to find out about the natives of a country, their lifestyle, music, and folklore. (3) Interpersonal motivators include the desire to meet new people, visit friends or relatives, and to seek new and different experiences. Travel is an escape from routine relationships with friends and neighbours or the home environment, or it is used for spiritual reasons. (4) Status and prestige motivators include a desire for continuation of education such as personal development, ego enhancement, and sensual indulgence. Such motivators are seen to be concerned with the desire for recognition and attention from others, in order to boost personal self-esteem. This category also includes personal development in relation to the pursuit of hobbies and education.

Plog (1974) developed a theory which allowed the US population to be classified into a series of interrelated psychographic types, which range between the psychocentric and the allocentric types. The psychocentric types tend to be conservative in their travel patterns, preferring “safe” destinations and often taking many return trips. The allocentric types are adventurous and motivated to travel and discover new destinations. They rarely return to the same place twice. Plog’s theory closely associates travel motivation with the types of destinations. Allocentrics, for example, will prefer destinations at the frontier of tourism, unspoilt and undiscovered by the travel trade. However, psychocentrics desire the comfort of a well-developed and “safe” destination. However, this model has limitations in that some tourists travel with different motivations for different locations.

Socio-demographic factors as predictors of travel motivations

Of equal importance to understanding motivation is the understanding of motivation predictors. Many studies have been carried out to investigate travel motivations and travel motivation process (Bansal & Eiselt, 2004; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Funk & Bruun, 2007; Gnoth, 1997; Heung et al., 2001; McCabe, 2000; Swanson & Horridge, 2006; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994) in order to further explain tourist behaviour. Moreover, there has been much speculation in the literature as to what specifically influences travel motivations. Cai, Hong, and Morrison (1995), Lu and Pas (1999), and Saayman and Saayman (2006) suggest that purchase decision is influenced by personal or socio-demographic variables. Beerli, Josefa, and Martin (2003) specify this further by describing personal factors

including gender, age, family life cycle, level of education, and social class, all of which affect an individual's cognitive evaluation of stimuli and therefore also influence that person's perception of the environment.

Since then, Lamb, Hair, and McDaniel (2002) have added culture to the list of socio-demographic variables to be studied. Culture can be defined in two ways: culture based on one's ethnicity or race and culture which may not necessarily be influenced by ethnicity, but based on a society's norms and practices. The first definition is pretty straightforward in meaning. The second definition is slightly more complex. However, in understanding travel motivation, cultural norms and practices can be narrowed down to the role of the male/female or family cycle in travel purchase decisions. Gilbert (1991) contends that family members play important roles at different stages of the purchase process, and in decisions about when, where, and how tourism products will be consumed. This depends on the cultural context, as family values differ across cultures. Husband–wife relationships, for example, are an important determinant, as decisions may be husband dominated, wife dominated, or a joint decision-making process.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2007), decision-making in China is normally husband dominated, particularly in rural areas as compared to urban areas, where decisions are normally mutually made between husband and wife. The same phenomenon is also seen in India and the USA, where wife-made decisions dominate in purchasing decisions. In contrast, a new trend has emerged over the past few decades, where a greater number of decisions are being made under the influence of children, a trend where differences are magnified by increasingly fewer children in the family. In China for instance, the “single child” policy is manifesting a shift in the decision-making process, particularly in terms of family products such as meals, vacations, and automobiles (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007).

Several empirical findings on the relationship between socio-demography and travel motivation have also been documented. Gitelson and Kerstetter (1990) found that relaxation, socializing, and exploration are motivations that females can identify with better than males. Jensen (2011) also found female travellers to rate “exploration”, “escape/relaxation”, “social relationship with family/friends”, and “famous sites/heritages” as significant motivators compared to the males who rated “prestige/impression” as significant motivators. Zimmer, Brayley, and Searle (1995) found that a person's travel motivation can be influenced by age, income, and education level. Level of education is also found to influence distance travelled (Zimmer et al., 1995) in addition to the intent to travel among seniors (Sangpikul, 2008). Age is also a major predictor of travel motivation (Jensen, 2011). Specifically, the author found young people to be more motivated to travel for social reasons, while older people tend to be more motivated by nature appreciation. This finding was consistent with an earlier study by Kim, Lee, and Klenosky (2003), which concluded with similar observations about the influence of age on travel motivation.

All of the above factors are uncontrollable factors which can influence tourist behaviour (Lamb et al., 2002) by affecting an individual's cognitive evaluation of stimuli and by influencing perception of the environment (Saayman & Saayman, 2009). While there is consensus that socio-demographic determinants have an effect on activity, participation, and travel behaviour, there is still a need to empirically determine the effect of socio-demography on motivations to travel to particular destinations. As Kozak (2002) contends, despite extensive researches on tourist motivation, empirical evidence on differences in the motivations of groups to travel to particular destinations is still lacking.

This study examined domestic tourism in the context of island destinations in Malaysia. Specifically, the study looked at the influence of socio-demographic variables

on travel motivation of domestic tourists to island destinations in the northwest peninsula of Malaysia. Variables evaluated were factors such as gender, age, family life cycle, level of education, and income of domestic tourists, and we examined to what extent these factors affect motivation to visit island destinations. Culture was also tested using questions on ethnicity and norms (for example, individuals they consulted in planning their travel, and travel companionship in their current or most recent visit). Socio-demographic predictors of travel motivations among domestic tourists to island destination were tested via the following hypotheses:

- H1a: There are differences in travel motivations between tourists of different age groups.
- H1b: There are differences in travel motivations between male and female tourists.
- H1c: There are differences in travel motivations between tourists of different cultures.
- H1d: There are differences in travel motivations between tourists with different education levels.
- H1e: There are differences in travel motivations among tourists according to the monthly income.
- H1f: There are differences in travel motivations between tourists travelling with family members and those travelling alone

Our study focused on domestic tourism to island destinations because no similar studies have been done before in Malaysia. The findings of this research could add value to the current knowledge about domestic tourism in Malaysia.

Methodology

The study focused on exploring factors that motivate individuals to take particular holidays to specific destinations (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). For this reason, data were collected on-site in four island destinations in the northwest of Peninsular Malaysia. These islands were selected for two reasons: they are popular tourism destinations for domestic tourists, and their locations are most logistically practical for this study. To ensure compliance with time constraints for fieldwork and to overcome the complexity of getting a high response rate in an intercept survey, the study appointed 100 enumerators over a 6-month period to increase the probability of getting the desired number of responses. The enumerators were trained in small groups and sent out in batches to conduct in-person surveys. Training was considered essential because enumerator comprehension of the research objectives would increase effectiveness of data collection. Enumerators were also trained on what respondent characteristics to seek out and how to approach respondents. Finally, they were trained to ask a qualifying question to determine residency status of each targeted respondent. Only those who were Malaysian but lived outside of the islands being studied were probed further. The definition of “tourist” used here complies with the United Nations World Trade Organization’s requirement that tourists are “...persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes” (OECD Glossary of Statistical Term, 2007). Under this definition, there is no minimal travel time frame specified. Therefore, even day trips to Jerejak Island from Penang (the smallest among the four islands and uninhibited) qualify as domestic tourism within this study’s context. Data collected were later coded and analysed using SPSS 14 software.

The sample was determined based on the available information on domestic tourism proposed in Malaysia’s Department of Statistics (2010) and The Economic Planning Unit

(2011) documents. The documents show that the total Malaysian population in 2010 was 26,784,965, with 8,477,869 (32%) being minors (≤ 14 years old). Thus, the study population was 25,937,176. Using the formula shown on the Creative Research System website (<http://www.creativeresearchsystem.com>), the sample size required a 99% confidence level at ± 3 confidence intervals. The minimum sample size required to represent the study population is 1894 individuals.

Prior to actual field collection, the instrument was pilot tested on 30 individuals believed to represent the characteristics of the average domestic traveller to local island destinations. The purpose of this test was to assess the survey completion time, to assess the appropriateness and clarity of the questions, and to address the issue of validity and reliability. The actual data collection yielded 1780 useful responses, giving the study a response rate of 93.9%. This number was considered very good, regardless of the methods used to collect data, as a high response rate is extremely important when results are intended to represent a larger population (Fowler, 1984). Fowler (1984) further contends that the lower the response rate, the greater the sample bias.

Principal component using varimax rotation with Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) yielded seven distinct dimensions, which accounted for 77.79% (KMO = 0.903, $p < 0.01$) of the total variance. The criterion of eigenvalues > 1 was used to identify the number of factors to be extracted. The first factor was labelled *Physical* and contains five items which accounted for 44.13% of the total variance. Factor loading for each item

Table 1. Background of the respondents.

	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	800	44.9
Female	980	55.1
<i>Age</i>		
16–20	903	50.7
21–25	785	44.1
26–30	59	3.3
< 31	33	1.9
<i>Ethnic</i>		
Malay	872	48.9
Chinese	585	32.9
Indian	300	16.9
Others	23	1.3
<i>Income</i>		
< RM2000	777	43.7
RM2001–RM5000	386	21.7
RM5001–RM8000	443	24.9
> RM8001	174	9.8
<i>Occupation</i>		
Self-employed	557	31.3
Business employers	450	25.3
Professional	33	1.9
Others	740	41.6
<i>Academic</i>		
Secondary school	635	35.7
Undergraduate	607	34.1
Postgraduate	528	29.7

Note: $N = 1780$.

ranged from 0.492 to 0.828. The second factor, *Status*, accounted for 13.08% of the variance. Factor loading for five items in this dimension was high, ranging from 0.641 to 0.731. *Personal Development* was extracted as the third factor. This attribute contributed another 6.32% of the total variance. It also contained five items which collectively explained the attributes.

Another dimension was *Pleasure*, extracted as the fourth factor. This five-item dimension contributed another 4.67% of variance. The loading ranged from 0.567 to 0.843. The fifth factor was labelled *Cultural* and accounted for 3.53% of the variance. The five items in this dimension loaded from 0.457 to 0.843. *Emotional* was labelled as the sixth factor, accounting for another 3.07% of the total variance. Factor loading for five items in this dimension was also high (0.511–0.816). The last factor extracted for this analysis was labelled *Personal*. It contributed 2.99% to the total variance explained. This dimension also contained five items with the factor loading ranging from 0.457 to 0.843.

The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 1. Domestic tourists on the island studied were found to be slightly skewed in terms of age (more respondents under 31 years of age) compared with the national population in Malaysia (mean age is 26 years). This shows that the islands tend to attract a greater number of young adults compared with the much older segments of the overall population. Other characteristics were found to be consistent with those documented in the Department of Statistics' Domestic Tourism Survey (2010).

Results

Island destinations are different from other types of tourism destinations. As such, the motivations for visiting these places are also presumably different. Understanding what these motivations are can enhance marketers' understanding about the market in question – in this case, domestic tourists. Thus, respondents of this study were asked to rank seven dimensions of travel motivation: cultural, pleasure, status, physical, personal development, personal, and emotional. Importance was measured using a five-point scale, ranging from 1, not important at all to 5, very important. Means were computed to determine low, moderate, and high levels of importance as proposed. Mean score was divided into three levels as follows: (a) Low importance, 1.00–2.25; (b) Moderate importance, 2.26–3.75; and (c) High importance, 3.76–5.00.

The results showed that the most important travel motivations in visiting island destinations were physical (mean = 3.95, SD = 0.61), personal development (mean = 3.84, SD = 0.61), and status (mean = 3.78, SD = 0.63). Respondents had the tendency to travel to island destinations for physical benefit such as swimming in the sea (mean = 4.12), participating in high-risk activities such as parasailing (mean = 4.01), and enjoying water sports such as jet skiing (mean = 3.97). For personal development benefit, respondents were motivated by the likelihood of refreshing their mind and body (mean = 4.38) and seeing new things (mean = 4.08). For status benefits, respondents seem to travel to island destinations because they want to enjoy a private and exclusive environment (mean = 4.01), luxurious services and facilities (mean = 4.00) and want to experience a high level of customer service and product quality (mean = 4.00).

Moderate dimensions of travel motivation to island destinations were cultural (mean = 3.49, SD = 0.84), pleasure (mean = 3.55, SD = 0.73), personal (mean = 3.66, SD = 0.58), and emotional (mean = 3.45, SD = 0.66). Overall travel motivations were found to be at the moderate level (mean = 3.68, SD = 0.45). With these results, it can be concluded that the main dimensions of domestic tourists' travel motivations to island

destinations (see Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007) are physical, personal development, and status. The insignificance of the personal factor as a motivation dimension indicates that *balik kampung*, or going back to one's home village and staying with friends and relatives (see Department of Statistics, 2010), is not a major travel motivation among Malaysian domestic tourists to island destinations. This finding is consistent with that of Mohamed and Yusof (2005), who proposed that only a small number of Malaysians considered *balik kampung* as the primary purpose of travelling (Table 2).

To establish the predictors of travel motivation among domestic tourists to island destinations, independent sample *t*-test and one-way ANOVA were used to test the hypotheses of the study. Results are as presented below:

Age: One-way ANOVA tests to examine differences in travel motivations between age groups showed no differences ($F = 0.612, p > 0.05$) among respondents by age group in all dimension of motivation to travel ($p > 0.05$). These findings suggest that we can reject hypothesis H1a. In other words, age is not a significant predictor of domestic tourists' travel motivation to island destinations. This finding does not support earlier studies that found age to be a significant predictor of travel motivations (see Jensen, 2011; Kim et al., 2003; Zimmer et al., 1995).

Gender: An independent sample *t*-test was carried out to investigate the differences of travel motivations between genders. The analysis found that there is no significant difference between male and female respondents in relation to travel motivation ($t = -0.072, p > 0.05$). Mean score between the two groups of respondents were found to be about the same. No significant differences were found in all motivation factors. Hence, hypothesis H1b is rejected, indicating that gender is not a significant predictor of domestic tourists' travel motivation to island destinations. This contradicts earlier assumptions that travel motivations are significantly different between males and females (Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1990; Jensen, 2011).

Culture – ethnicity: One-way ANOVA was applied to analyse differences in travel motivations between tourists of different cultures. The findings indicate that the mean score for each ethnic group in travel motivations is about the same. The results suggest that there are no significant differences in overall travel motivations among Malay, Chinese, and Indian tourists ($F = 1.105, p > 0.05$). Results also failed to show any differences in motivation factors between these groups. Hence, hypothesis H1c was also rejected. This is not surprising, as no earlier studies have mentioned ethnic-based culture to be a predictor of travel motivation.

Education level: One-way ANOVA tests on differences of travel motivations among education levels showed no significant differences. The results also found that there is no significant difference in the overall travel motivation between groups of education levels ($F = 2.548, p > 0.05$). This result suggests that hypothesis H1d can be rejected. This finding contradicts earlier studies such as that by Kim et al. (2003) and Zimmer et al. (1995), who found education levels to be a significant predictor of travel motivation.

Monthly income: One-way ANOVA tests to examine the differences in travel motivation among income groups showed no differences in travel motivation among four groups ($F = 0.323, p > 0.05$). The analysis also failed to find any significant differences in all dimensions of motivation to travel. Therefore, hypothesis H1e was also rejected. This indicates that income level is not a significant predictor of domestic tourist travel motivation to island destinations. One possible explanation for the finding is that the islands being studied are not exclusive tourism destinations (unlike some island destinations such as Maldives), and offer products and services for all income levels.

Table 2. Level of importance of the proposed travel motivation.

Dimension/item	Mean	SD	Level
Cultural	3.49	0.84	Moderate
To learn about the history behind each attraction	3.51	1.12	Moderate
To visit cultural attractions	2.71	1.18	Moderate
To experience new culture and customs	3.65	1.29	Moderate
To visit historical sites and museums	3.44	1.03	Moderate
To sample local cuisine	4.13	0.97	High
Pleasure	3.55	0.71	Moderate
To enjoy the shopping experience	3.45	1.12	Moderate
To enjoy the night entertainment being offered	2.83	1.11	Moderate
To spend time relaxing and resting	3.73	0.91	Moderate
To visit sites of natural beauty	3.88	0.92	High
To watch wildlife	3.84	1.08	High
Status	3.78	0.64	High
To enjoy the private and exclusive environment	4.01	0.88	High
To enjoy the luxurious services and facilities being offered	4.00	0.82	High
To shop for exclusive and branded goods	3.10	1.20	Moderate
To experience the personalized treatment being provided	3.78	0.86	High
To experience the highest level of customer service and product quality	4.00	0.89	High
Physical	3.95	0.61	High
To participate in high-risk activities such as parasailing	4.01	0.80	High
To swim in the sea	4.12	0.80	High
To experience outdoor activities such as jungle-trekking	3.67	0.87	Moderate
To be engaged in sports such as tennis and golf	4.01	0.69	High
To enjoy water sports such as jet skiing	3.97	0.78	High
Personal development	3.84	0.60	High
To learn new skills	3.97	0.76	High
To gain new knowledge	3.36	1.20	Moderate
To see new things	4.08	0.67	High
To enrich my education	3.40	1.02	Moderate
To refresh my mind and body	4.38	0.73	High
Personal	3.66	0.58	Moderate
To visit friends and family	3.73	0.93	Moderate
To make new friends	3.70	0.89	Moderate
To get away from work	3.92	0.77	High
To spend time with my good friends	3.85	0.76	High
To spend time with my family	3.11	0.98	Moderate
Emotional	3.44	0.65	Moderate
To be reminded of nostalgic moments (honeymoon)	3.38	1.05	Moderate
In search of romance	3.22	1.08	Moderate
To experience spiritual fulfilment	3.53	0.94	Moderate
As a form of escapism	3.28	1.01	Moderate
To fulfil one's fantasy	3.77	0.89	High
Motivation/benefit	3.67	0.45	Moderate

As shown in Table 3, one-way ANOVA tests on differences in travel motivation according to respondents' companion status during travel found no significant differences in all travel motivation factors. Culture is significant at $F = 16.264, p < 0.01$; Pleasure ($F = 12.020, p < 0.01$); Status ($F = 20.982, p < 0.01$); Physical ($F = 18.880, p < 0.01$); Personal Development ($F = 9.392, p < 0.01$); Personal ($F = 16.296, p < 0.01$) and Emotional ($F = 2.492, p < 0.01$). Respondents who travel with their spouse/partner and their children were found to place higher value on most travel motivation factors, compared to respondents who often travel alone, or with friends and colleagues

Table 3. Differences in travel motivation between age group.

	Age (mean)				
	16–20	21–25	26–30	<31	Significance
	F				Significance
Cultural	3.47	3.49	3.55	3.59	
Pleasure	3.52	3.59	3.50	3.41	0.774
Status	3.77	3.79	3.77	3.76	0.145
Physical	3.95	3.97	3.95	3.85	0.974
Personal development	3.82	3.85	3.89	3.85	0.492
Personal	3.66	3.67	3.75	3.55	0.688
Emotional	3.42	3.44	3.48	3.44	0.491
Motivation	3.66	3.69	3.70	3.64	0.437
					0.873
					0.608

	Gender (mean)		
	Male	Female	T
	Significance		Significance
Cultural	3.46	3.51	
Pleasure	3.52	3.57	–1.050
Status	3.77	3.78	–1.363
Physical	3.94	3.97	–.299
Personal development	3.83	3.84	–1.127
Personal	3.67	3.65	–.217
Emotional	3.44	3.43	0.691
Motivation	3.66	3.68	0.996
			0.610
			0.766

	Ethnic (mean)		
	Malay	Chinese	Indian
	F		Significance
Cultural	3.50	3.50	
Pleasure	3.56	3.54	1.561
Status	3.80	3.75	0.644
Physical	3.97	3.93	0.810
Personal development	3.86	3.81	0.507
Personal	3.68	3.66	1.572
Emotional	3.43	3.47	0.208
Motivation	3.69	3.67	0.520
			1.584
			0.205
			0.331

Education level (mean)

Secondary school	Education level (mean)		F	Significance
	Undergraduate	Postgraduate		
Cultural	3.43	3.54	2.800	0.061
Pleasure	3.50	3.58	2.162	0.115
Status	3.74	3.80	1.937	0.144
Physical	3.93	3.99	1.466	0.231
Personal development	3.83	3.85	0.247	0.781
Personal	3.64	3.67	0.832	0.435
Emotional	3.41	3.45	0.896	0.408
Motivation	3.64	3.69	2.548	0.079
Monthly income (mean)				
	< RM2000	RM2001 – RM5000	RM5001 – RM8000	< RM8000
Cultural	3.47	3.51	3.49	3.51
Pleasure	3.54	3.56	3.55	3.54
Status	3.75	3.77	3.81	3.85
Physical	3.95	3.96	3.94	4.00
Personal development	3.84	3.84	3.82	3.86
Personal	3.69	3.61	3.66	3.65
Emotional	3.44	3.42	3.42	3.50
Motivation	3.67	3.67	3.67	3.70
Travelling companion (mean)				
	Alone	Spouse	Spouse and children	Friends
Cultural	3.44	3.65	3.35	3.22
Pleasure	3.50	3.66	3.49	3.25
Status	3.72	3.91	3.72	3.43
Physical	3.92	4.07	3.91	3.62
Personal development	3.80	3.85	3.90	3.58
Personal	3.58	3.73	3.69	3.32
Emotional	3.37	3.47	3.45	3.30
Motivation	3.62	3.76	3.64	3.39
				Colleagues
				F
				Significance
Cultural				3.76
Pleasure				17.264
Status				0.000
Physical				12.020
Personal development				0.000
Personal				3.81
Emotional				20.982
Motivation				0.000
				18.880
				3.95
				3.68
				9.392
				0.000
				16.296
				0.000
				2.492
				0.041
				0.000
				22.940
				0.000

($F = 22.940$, $p < 0.01$). This result suggests that hypothesis H1e should not be rejected. This finding indicates that culture based on norms and practices is a strong predictor of domestic tourist travel motivation to island destinations. It is therefore consistent with that of Jensen (2011), who also found that social relationships with family and friends are important predictors of travel motivation among Danish travellers. This similarity of findings exists despite the fact that Jensen's study used a totally different method and target respondent (telephone survey of households in Denmark), compared to this study.

Effective means to reach domestic tourists

An important aspect of tourism marketing is reaching the intended market. Understanding aspects such as information sources, travel preferences, and travel planning can enlighten a marketer as to how the target market can be accessed. Information sources are good indicators of how to best reach a target market. In this study, the Internet was found to be an important media outlet for respondents to gather travel information (see Table 4). Frequency analysis showed that the majority of domestic tourists to island destinations depend on the Internet for travel information. Only 12.0% seek travel information through travel agencies, 6.1% from printed media, and 2.1% from other sources. They use the Internet to identify the island (44.9%), to collect information about the island (41.4%), and to form their destination image (47.8%). The Internet was also perceived as the most convenient source to seek travel information (54.8%), in addition to being the most user friendly (51.7%). Other important information sources included magazines, television, and guidebooks. In addition, the majority always make hotel reservations before travelling, while 21.3% sometimes make a reservation and 4.7% had never made hotel reservations before travelling.

The above result is not surprising in this day and age, considering the global trend of Internet usage. It does, however, highlight the importance of stronger and more effective web presence of tourism providers in island destinations. Tourism providers can no longer be complacent about their web presence and the accuracy of the information they post online. Rather, they should strive to ease the booking and enquiry experience for domestic tourists.

Tourists' travel preferences can give marketers insight into the type of activities that could help improve tourists' experiences. In this study, travelling using personal vehicles is the most popular choice among the domestic tourists surveyed (62.5%). This finding could be due to the convenience of using personal vehicles (owned or rented) instead of public transportation systems which, in the context of all the islands except Jerejak (which has no public transport system), is generally known to be inefficient. More than half of the respondents (50.7%) indicated that they rarely shop at their chosen island destination. Respondents who do shop during their visits, prefer to shop for clothes, bags, and shoes (57.9%), souvenirs (22.8%), and electronic products (12.2%). Sometimes, respondents bargain when shopping (70.7%) and buy travel packages from travel agents before travelling to island destinations (69.1%). These findings point to the need for destination service providers to give domestic tourists to island destinations value for money shopping experience.

As shown in Table 5, domestic tourists prefer to stay at the cheapest but cleanest places (41.2%), or at a unique hotel (29.5%), when travelling to island destinations. Some prefer to stay at exclusive resorts (26.0%). Only a small percentage of respondents stayed at a friend's house (3.3%) during their visit. Almost half of the respondents (49.9%) travelled for pleasure or for business purposes (15.7%). Only some visited friends and relatives

(34.4%) during their visit. The majority also plan their travelling in advance (80.2%) through consulting with their spouse/partner (26.1%) and friends (23.8%). Only a third of the respondents did not consult anyone prior to travel (33.1%). This shows that domestic tourists carefully plan and make informed decisions when choosing destinations. This again shows the importance of updated, accurate, and user-friendly information sources about destinations in attracting more domestic tourists.

Conclusion and implications

This study is different from other studies on this topic as none of the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, ethnicity, education level, and monthly income) were found to have any influence on the travel motivations of domestic tourists to island destinations. Therefore, this study does not support previous studies' findings about gender, age, and education levels as significant predictors of travel motivation. It does, however, contribute something significant – the influence of culture based on norms and practices. Specifically, it found travel companionship status to be an important variable influencing travel motivation. Again, this finding is consistent with that of Jensen (2011), who studied Danish tourists using a completely different methodology than this study.

Because the findings indicate that the majority of respondents consult someone when planning their travel, it can be concluded that domestic tourists' travel decisions heavily depend on outside influences. "Spouse/partner" and "friends" topped the list as the biggest influencers of travel purchasing decisions. This parallels Schiffman and Kanuk (2007) contention that spouse and children are significant influencers of travel purchasing behaviour. However, in contrast with tourists in China, India, and the USA, where gender role is the only influence (see Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007), travel motivations of domestic tourists to island destinations in Malaysia are seen to be influenced by peer pressure as well. This is owing to the fact that the majority of domestic tourists to island destinations in the study context are from the younger segment of the population, for whom "social" is a major reason for travel (see Jensen, 2011). Thus, this study adds to Gilbert's (1991) theory on the important role of family members in two ways: it provides empirical support for the role of family members in the purchase process for tourism products, and it adds another factor (i.e. "friends" or "peers") as a strong influence on travel purchase decisions. Therefore, Gilbert's (1991) theory should perhaps be expanded to include the role of friends and peers in travel purchases.

An important managerial implication of this finding is that, in understanding domestic tourists' behaviour, destination marketers must take into consideration the influencing role of family and friends in travel decisions. This understanding can be exhibited by engaging in marketing strategies that emphasize themes such as family bonding, friendship, and reunion. In addition, destination marketers should be aware of the power of the Internet. Domestic tourists in this study were found to depend heavily on the Internet in their travel planning, especially when booking accommodations. In fact, the Internet strongly influences their image about island destinations and is a friendly source of information about such travel. This finding reinforces the current global trend in the use of social media, e-word of mouth from sites such as TripAdvisor, and other Internet-based information sources. Thus, the Internet can be an important marketing tool for island destination marketers, especially accommodation providers, in reaching domestic tourists. In other words, websites and social media offer significant opportunities to elevate domestic tourism within the study context. Thus, marketers of island destinations can get their marketing messages across via these media outlets to generate interest among local people who travel domestically instead of abroad.

Table 4. Travel/trip characteristics of domestic tourist in islands of northwest Malaysia.

	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Source of information</i>		
Internet	1436	80.7
Travel agency	208	11.7
Media	108	6.1
Others	28	1.6
<i>Hotel reservation</i>		
Always	1324	74.4
Sometimes	367	20.6
Never	89	5.0
<i>Transportation choice</i>		
Personal vehicle	1139	64.0
Bus	266	14.9
Train	215	12.1
Airplane	62	3.5
Others	98	5.5
<i>Shopping</i>		
Always	702	39.4
Sometimes	900	50.6
Never	178	10.0
<i>Goods shopped</i>		
Souvenir	406	22.8
Clothes, bags, and shoes	853	47.9
Electronic products	218	12.2
Others	303	17.0
<i>Bargain when shopping</i>		
Always	108	6.1
Sometimes	1258	70.7
Never	414	23.3
<i>Touring packages</i>		
Always	518	29.1
Sometimes	1230	69.1
Never	32	1.8
<i>Information source to identify resort island</i>		
Internet	1039	44.9
Travel agencies	545	23.6
Media	654	28.3
Others	76	3.3
<i>Information source to collect information about island</i>		
Internet	957	41.4
Travel agencies	480	20.7
Media	841	36.3
Others	36	1.6
<i>Information sources to form destination image</i>		
Internet	1105	47.8
Travel agencies	463	20.0
Media	717	31.0
Others	29	1.3
<i>Most convenient information source</i>		
Internet	1268	54.8
Travel agencies	372	16.1
Media	522	22.6
Others	152	6.6
<i>Most user-friendly information source</i>		
Internet	1196	51.7
Travel agencies	127	5.5
Media	952	41.1
Others	39	1.7

Table 5. Early planning to island travel.

	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Stay when travelling to resort island</i>		
Cheapest clean place	954	41.2
Exclusive resort	548	23.7
Friend's house	76	3.3
Five star hotel	53	2.3
Any unique local hotel	683	29.5
<i>Purpose of travel</i>		
Business	363	15.7
Pleasure	1154	49.9
Visit	797	34.4
<i>Plan the travelling</i>		
Yes	1855	80.2
No	459	19.8
<i>Who consulted when deciding island visit</i>		
No one	765	33.1
Spouse/partner	602	26.0
Children	165	7.1
Friend	550	23.8
Relatives	117	5.1
Others	115	5.0

Finally, a rather unique finding of this study is that modern Malaysian domestic tourists tend to buy travel packages from travel agents for their island destination trips. This trend is different from Ibrahim's (2006) conclusion that most local tourists were not interested in seeking the assistance of travel agencies in their plans for a holiday. Mohamed and Yusof (2005) also found that 85% of their respondents do not prefer travel packages. The managerial implication of this emerging behavioural trend is that island destination marketers and tour agency operators should not ignore the domestic market in developing travel packages. Instead, more effort to please this market should be developed to further attract domestic tourists.

This study is limited because it does not explore the possible differences of motivations to travel to each of the four islands. Therefore, future studies could explore whether there are, indeed, differences in travel motivations and travel motivation predictors between domestic island destinations. Future research could also focus on other islands around the country and other domestic attractions besides islands (e.g. mountains and forests) to provide a more comprehensive look at travel motivations and travel motivation predictors for domestic tourists. In addition, future research could add more variables such as place of origin, tourist personality, perceived risk, distance, cost, or assessment of a recent visit to produce more meaningful findings on the topic of travel motivation.

Acknowledgement

This paper is one of the outputs of a research funded by the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme, Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia.

References

- Bansal, H., & Eiselt, H. (2004). Exploratory research of tourist motivations and planning. *Tourism Management*, 25, 387–396.
- Beerli, A., Josefa, J. D., & Martin, D. (2003). *Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourists destinations: A quantitative analysis – a case study of Lanzarote, Spain*. Spain: Gran Canaria University of Las Palmas de Gran Canaria.

- Bogari, N. B., Crowther, G., & Marr, N. E. (2003). Motivation for domestic tourism: A case study of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Tourism Analysis*, 8, 137–141.
- Boniface, B. G., & Cooper, C. P. (1994). *Geography of travel and tourism*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Cai, L. A., Hong, G., & Morrison, A. M. (1995). Household expenditures patterns for tourism products and services. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 4, 15–40.
- Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Fyall, A., Gilber, D., & Wanhill, S. (2008). *Tourism: Principles and Practice* (4th ed.). Essex: Prentice Hall.
- Crompton, J. (1979). Motivations for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6, 408–424.
- Dann, G. M. S. (1981). Tourist motivation: An appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8, 187–219.
- Department of Statistics, Malaysia (2010). Domestic tourism survey. Putrajaya: Department of Statistics Malaysia. Available online at <http://www.statistics.gov.my/portal/index.php?lang=en>.
- Fowler, F. J. Jr. (1984). *Survey research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Funk, D. C., & Bruun, T. J. (2007). The role of socio-psychological and culture-education motives in marketing international sport tourism: A cross-cultural perspective. *Tourism Management*, 28, 806–819.
- Ghimire, K. (2001). *The native tourists: Mass tourism within developing countries*. London: Earthscan.
- Gilbert, D. C. (1991). An examination of the consumer behaviour process related to tourism. In C. P. Cooper (Ed.), *Progress in tourism, recreation and hospitality management* (pp. 78–105). London: Belhaven.
- Gitelson, R. J., & Kerstetter, D. L. (1990). The relationship between socio-demographic variables, benefits sought and subsequent vacation behaviour. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28, 24–29.
- Gnoth, J. (1997). Tourism motivation and expectation formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24, 283–304.
- Heung, V. C. S., Qu, H., & Chu, R. (2001). The relationship between vacation factors and socio-demographic and travelling characteristic: The case of Japanese leisure travellers. *Tourism Management*, 22(3), 259–269.
- Hung, K., & Petrick, J. F. (2011). Why do you cruise? Exploring the motivations for taking cruise holidays, and the construction of a cruising motivation scale. *Tourism Management*, 32, 386–393.
- Ibrahim, N. (2006). *Assessment of Cuti-Cuti Malaysia as an advertising campaign among residents in Peninsular Malaysia* (Unpublished master's thesis). Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia.
- Jensen, J. M. (2011). The relationships between socio-demographic variables, travel motivations and subsequent choice of vacation. *Proceedings of the 2nd international conference on economics, business and management, IPEDR, Vol. 22*. Singapore: IACSIT Press.
- Kim, S. S., Lee, C. K., & Klenosky, D. B. (2003). The influence of push and pull factors at Korean national parks. *Tourism Management*, 24, 169–180.
- Kozak, M. (2002). Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations. *Tourism Management*, 23, 221–232.
- Lamb, C. W., Hair, J. F., & McDaniel, C. (2002). *Marketing* (6th ed.). CT, USA: Thompson Learning.
- Langkawi Development Authority [LADA] (2012). Visitor statistics to Langkawi 2011. Retrieved July 27, 2012, from <http://www.lada.gov.my/tourism/wp-xdownload/eStatistic%20Arrival%202011.pdf>
- Lu, X., & Pas, E. J. (1999). Socio-demographic activity participation and travel behaviour. *Transportation Research Part A*, 33, 1–18.
- MacCannell, D. (1999). Staged authenticity. *The tourist: A new theory of the leisure class* (3rd ed., pp. 91–107). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). *Motivation and personality*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- McCabe, A. S. (2000). Tourism motivation process. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27, 1049–1052.
- McIntosh, R. W., Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1995). *Tourism principles, practices, philosophies*. New York: Wiley.
- Mohamed, B., & Yusof, Y. (2005). Malaysian domestic travellers: Characteristics and behaviours. Retrieved May 3, 2012, from [http://psasir.upm.edu.my/6102/1/FH_2006_10\(1-24\).pdf](http://psasir.upm.edu.my/6102/1/FH_2006_10(1-24).pdf)
- OECD Glossary of Statistical Term. 2007. Glossary of statistical term: Downloadable version. Retrieved from <http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/download.asp>

- Pearce, P. L., & Caltabiano, M. (1983). Inferring travel motivations from travellers' experience. *Journal of Travel Research*, 22, 16–20.
- Plog, S. C. (1974). Why destination areas rise and fall in popularity. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Quarterly*, 14(4), 55–58.
- Plog, S. C. (1994). Developing and using psychographics in tourism research. In J. R. Brent Ritchie & C. R. Goeldner (Eds.), *Travel, tourism and hospitality research: A handbook for managers and researchers* (2nd ed.) (pp. 203–213). New York, US: John Wiley and Sons.
- Richter, L. K. (1989). *The politics of tourism in Asia*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.
- Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2006). Socio-demographic and behavioral determinants of visitors spending at Kruger National Park in South Africa. *Proceedings paper at LATF conference*, 26–29 October 2007, Palma de Mallorca, Spain.
- Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2009). Why travel motivation and socio-demographics matter in managing a national park. *Koedoe*, 51(1), 1–9.
- Sangpikul, A. (2008). Travel motivations of Japanese senior travellers to Thailand. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 10, 81–94.
- Scheyvens, R. (2002). *Tourism for development: Empowering communities*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Schiffman, L. G., & Kanuk, L. L. (2007). *Consumer behavior* (9th ed.). New York: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Swanson, K. K., & Horridge, P. E. (2006). Travel motivation as souvenir purchase indicators. *Tourism Management*, 27, 671–683.
- Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (2007). *Consumer behaviour in tourism*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
- The Economic Planning Unit, the Prime Minister Department Official Portal (2011). Population and labour. Retrieved February 20, 2011, from http://www.epu.gov.my/html/themes/epu/images/common/pdf/eco_stat/pdf/1.2.5.pdf
- The New Strait Times* (2008, March 8). Water crisis looming in Malaysia. Retrieved June 2, 2012, from <http://malaysiahotelnews.blogspot.com/2008/03/boosting-domestic-tourism.html>
- Uysal, M., & Jurowski, C. (1994). Testing the push and pull factors. *Annals of Travel Research*, 21, 844–846.
- Wilson, D. (1997). Paradoxes of tourism in Goa. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(1), 52–75.
- Zimmer, Z., Brayley, R., & Searle, M. (1995). Whether to go and where to go: Identification of important influences on seniors' decision to travel. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33, 3–8.